

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 9, 1877.

The Week.

THE platform of the Ohio Republicans begins by "reaffirming" the national platform of 1876; then goes on to "reaffirm" the "unflinching confidence" of the party in Ohio in Mr. Hayes, and to "approve and support his efforts for the pacification of the country and the establishment of its civil service upon a basis of purity and efficiency." It "reaffirms" also the "unalterable purpose" of the party to maintain and enforce the Constitutional amendments, guaranteeing equal rights, irrespective of race or color, and to insist on the "full and effectual performance by the Federal Government, in the execution of all its powers, of its Constitutional obligations in that behalf." The fourth plank disposes of the currency question in language which we shall not attempt to paraphrase. It is as follows:

"Resolved, That we are in favor of both silver and gold as money; that both shall be a legal tender for the payment of all debts, except where otherwise specially provided by law, with coining and valuation so regulated that our people shall not be placed at a disadvantage in our trade with foreign nations, and that both metals shall be kept in circulation as the money of the nation, as contemplated by the Constitution; and we therefore demand the remonetization of silver."

The fifth plank opposes all Government railroad subsidies; the sixth opposes the renewal of patents which are "burdensome and oppressive to the masses of the people"; the seventh "views with alarm" the present "disturbed condition of the country," and proposes as a remedy for the labor troubles: 1st, a National Bureau of Industry; 2d, the assumption by Congress of a general supervisory authority over the railroads; 3d, provisions for "statutory arbitration" between employers and employed. We have elsewhere characterized the labor-plank, for which Mr. Stanley Matthews was responsible. The meaning of the currency-plank, or rather the probable result of an attempt on the part of Congress to give effect to it, has been the subject of much irreverent discussion. The failure to allude to resumption is another indication of the division which reigned in the Convention. On the whole, we have seldom seen a more deplorable lack of political courage and consistency than was shown by the makers of this platform. The Convention nominated for governor Judge W. H. West.

Mr. Stanley Matthews and Judge West appeared at a ratification meeting immediately after the adoption of the platform, and made speeches which are far from being to their credit. Judge West's address will bear a very minute examination without revealing anything in the way of a political programme. He apparently has no idea on any subject which he is capable of expressing in words, and appears to think that his strongest claim to public support is the fact that he owns no railroad bonds or stock and no bank stock, but is the son of an "humble mechanic," and received his early education "at the forge, blowing the bellows and wielding the sledge." He made one suggestion which, coming from a Western politician whose words may be presumed to have been affected by the Granger agitation, has a curious sound. He says that the railroads ought to be prohibited "from so reducing their rates by ruinous competition as to disable themselves from paying a just compensation to their operators." Mr. Stanley Matthews's speech was even worse than this, being a piece of unalloyed demagogism. He held up a silver dollar to the crowd, and declared that he was in favor of coining as many of them as might be necessary; that he was also in favor of "gold and silver and greenbacks, and as many as are necessary to oil the machinery which shall keep the great business of the world in free and harmonious

action, so that every man shall be busy in keeping up with the wheels of industry." As an illustration of the character of his speech, we may mention that he had the face to cite as precedents for the interference of Congress with the industry of the country the Bureau of Agriculture, which has been the laughing-stock of the newspapers for years, and the Steamboat Inspection Law, which we venture to say no one would dare to use in private conversation, except as a proof of the dangers of Government interference. His speech was, on the whole, little more than an elaboration of the platform. It appears to have received a good deal of searching criticism at the hands of the crowd which listened to it, many pertinent questions and suggestions being volunteered by members of the audience. One citizen suggested that the fundamental difficulty with the plan of statutory arbitration was that "Tom Scott can buy them off again"; while another citizen, on being informed that the American people are "high, lofty, noble, generous, just," and "cannot be purchased," requested to be informed whether "Jim Fisk didn't buy them." This made the orator indignant, and he told the crowd that they "should not judge others by themselves," which, however effective as a repartee, is defective, as a political maxim, since almost every advance made in the political art has been made in the same way that this simple-minded Ohio voter prosecutes his political studies—by asking what, under a given state of circumstances, we should ourselves do. Mr. Matthews had almost nothing to say about civil-service reform, of which he had the reputation of being one of the foremost apostles, and confined himself throughout to the lowest appeals to popular prejudice and passion. The prostitution of abilities as unusual as his to such work is a painful spectacle.

The Georgia Convention has met, and is at work remodelling the constitution of the State; few articles have as yet passed, and it is not to be expected that the deliberations of the Convention will do much more than make the government more Democratic than it has been, and introduce some of the usual restrictions on the loan of the State's credit. It is already settled that duelling is to be prohibited, that free schools are to be sustained, that there shall be a tax-paying qualification for suffrage, and that "lobbying" is to be made a crime. The crudeness of the proposals for a remedy of this evil is always curious; for they proceed on the supposition that "lobbying"—or, in other words, the advocacy for hire of particular measures of legislation in which heavy private interests are involved—is a criminal occupation, which can be stopped if the police are efficient, and the penalty is sufficiently serious. Lobbying, however, is in all free countries or states in which the legislatures assume as great powers as ours do a necessary branch of business, and people who have interests to protect can no more help lobbying than they can get along without legal advice. The true way to remove the evils which have grown up with lobbying is to elevate the character of the legislator, put all possible restrictions upon special legislation, and at the same time to make lobbying a recognized calling, by allowing none but reputable men, having a certain standing, to appear before Congressional and legislative committees, and argue their clients' causes without shame and without reproach. The Georgia bondholders' claims have apparently been disposed of out of hand, the committee refusing to grant them a hearing. The chief ground of complaint of the bondholders has always been that they could not get a hearing, so that this way of getting rid of them finally must strike the honest Georgian as a huge practical joke. The creditor is troublesome everywhere, but they know how to deal with him in the South.

The Mississippi Democratic Convention met on Wednesday of last week, and was characterized by size (about 1,100 delegates were present) and enthusiasm. The platform adopted favored "fidelity to

the Constitution of the United States"; home rule; no interference by the military power with the freedom of elections; the protection of equal rights to all classes; no distinction on account of race, etc., and no special legislation; "Jeffersonian" civil-service reform; retrenchment in public expenditures; reduction in the burdens of taxation to the lowest point compatible with an efficient execution of the laws; and a supervision by State authority of corporations of every description, and a subordination of them to State legislation in the interest of and for the protection of the people. The Convention also adopted a resolution pledging the party to the maintenance of the State system of free schools; and, as was expected, a subsidy resolution in favor of the Texas & Pacific Railroad and the Mississippi River levees. Mr. Lamar, in an address to the members of the Convention, assured them that an end had come for the present to the discussion of political questions involving Constitutional law, and the relations of the State to the Federal Government, and of the people to their State governments, which are to be replaced by questions of tariff, trade, commerce, currency, and transportation; and to these he strongly urged Southern statesmen to turn their attention. No better advice could be given.

The manifestations of the strike still continuing when we went to press last week were principally on the Central New Jersey road, the Lake Shore at Cleveland, and the Pittsburgh & Fort Wayne, at the latter city; but on the last two roads work was quietly resumed by Friday morning, and on the first-named by Monday. Among the Pennsylvania miners, however, the strike, instead of abating, increased, until by Friday morning it had spread through the Wyoming, Schuylkill, Shamokin, Lehigh, and Shenandoah districts, and numbered probably from thirty to forty thousand men. At Scranton, on Thursday, the mayor was assaulted and severely injured by rioters, and, as he was defended by volunteer soldiers, who fired upon the mob, several lives were lost. Several thousand soldiers under the immediate command of Governor Hartranft were, however, despatched at once to Scranton, Wilkesbarre, Plymouth, and other points at which violence was apprehended, and no further rioting has taken place. The Lehigh Valley road has discharged all strikers, and work has since been resumed on the road and in the mines connected with it. At present writing, soldiers are still maintaining order in the Pennsylvania coal regions, and the miners are gradually resuming work, although in the Scranton district they are holding out with great stubbornness. With this exception, however, the strike appears to be at last at an end.

Judge Dillon, of the United States Court of Iowa, has written a long letter to Mr. Reynolds, of the Missouri Bar, in reply to the charges made against him by some of the bondholders of the Iowa Central Railroad, in connection with the foreclosure proceedings, and of which we gave a summary in our issue of July 12. He denies or explains them seriatim, and in a manner which, to a layman, certainly seems entirely satisfactory, though of course only a competent tribunal could dispose of them finally. He says the Supreme Court sanctioned his course in granting an appeal on the demand of some of the bondholders, and that he did not, "having first refused it," grant it, as has been alleged, "without any change of circumstances," and gives facts from the record in proof of this. He denies also "having decided first that it was impossible to have the decree corrected or a new decree entered, and decided subsequently exactly the opposite," and shows from the report of his judgment that what he did was to point out to the dissatisfied bondholders the proper course for them to pursue in order to have the decree corrected or a new decree made. He further says that the stay of proceedings which he is accused of having improperly granted was really granted by Judge Miller of the Supreme Court, and that he never granted any stay whatever. As to the delay in the sale, he says the matter has, ever since Judge Miller's order granting a stay was vacated in 1876, lain in the absolute discretion of the trustee, on whom the Court has imposed no restriction whatever. The bondholders who desired a sale pending the appeal, applied for a mandatory order to the

trustee to sell, which the trustee opposed, and which Judge Dillon refused to grant, Judge Love, his associate, concurring with him without consultation, the ground of the refusal being unwillingness to interfere with the discretion of the trustee. The road was sold last month.

As to the removal of the competent receiver and the substitution of Mr. J. B. Grinnell, Judge Dillon says that the first receiver was the superintendent of the road, appointed on the request of one of the "warring factions" among the bondholders, that charges against his administration were constantly made supported by affidavits, and that it was evident there would be no peace until he was removed; that Mr. Grinnell was put in his place, and that his character was very high, and that instead of "plundering the road" he hindered others from doing so, and that no charges against him, supported by affidavits, were ever made, and the court considered that it would be unjust to a man of his standing to examine charges not so supported. As regards the appointment of Mr. Price, his father-in-law, a commissioner to examine and report on the road, the judge alleges that he was so appointed at the request of all parties among the bondholders, and made a good report and only got \$300 for it. As regards Mr. Price's offer to buy the road at 33 cents on the dollar of the mortgages, Judge Dillon very properly remarks that inasmuch as the decree of the court directs the trustee to bid in the road at the sale for the amount of the mortgage debt, Mr. Price's offer to buy it for less was of no sort of consequence, as it could not be accepted, and whether he ever made it or not Judge Dillon does not know. He concludes by calling attention to the fact that none of the counsel in the case have instigated or sanctioned the attacks on him.

The New York banks now hold \$54,200,000 legal-tender notes, against \$60,300,000 last year and \$73,600,000 in 1875. Their reserve now exceeds the amount required by law by only \$13,600,000, whereas a year ago the excess was \$23,800,000, in 1875 \$27,100,000, and in 1874 \$30,400,000. Considering that the crops in all sections are large, and that soon the New York banks will be applied to by their Southern and Western correspondents for aid in getting them to market; further, that the Treasury is properly pursuing a contraction policy, and that the mercantile demand for money independently of what will be required directly for the crops will probably be larger than usual, it is not strange that bankers look for much higher rates for money, and would not be surprised at even a stringent market before the middle of November.

The British Parliament has been the scene of some extraordinary proceedings during the past week, owing to the determined efforts of seven Irish members to prevent the passage of a bill providing for the creation of a "South African Confederation" annexing the Dutch Republic of Transvaal to the Cape Colonies. As the bulk of the small body of Boers who compose the Transvaal Republic were opposed to the annexation, the Home-Rulers found in their case a certain analogy to that of Ireland, and determined to defeat the measure, not by argument or eloquence, but by a trial of physical strength, in the form called here "filibustering," and therefore on the evening of Tuesday week, at six o'clock, the bill being in Committee of the Whole, began making motions to "report progress," and calling for divisions. The Government having been prepared for this by previous tactics of the same sort, arrangements were made as the evening passed to wear the Irishmen out by dividing the rest of the House into squads to relieve each other; and so the moving and dividing went on until noon on Wednesday, when the obstructionists gave way. The bill was finally passed at two o'clock, and the House adjourned at six, after a continuous session of twenty-six hours. There were twenty-two divisions in the same number of hours, and the chairman was four times relieved. The final surrender appears to have been the result of a threat of the Chancellor of the Exchequer that when the Marquis of Harting-

ton, the leader of the Opposition, came into the House to second the motion he would move the suspension of the recalcitrants.

As to the merits of the matter, it is to be said, first, that the Boers, who are a small body of whites barbarized by long and remote residence in the heart of Africa, and are guilty of savage treatment of the Caffres by whom they are surrounded, had let their political organization go to pieces, could raise no taxes and had no army, and had been worsted in some small conflicts with the natives, and were threatened with a general rising of the most warlike Caffre tribes, who would probably have overpowered them and have carried fire and sword along the whole frontier. British assistance thus became necessary, but protection without responsibility was refused, and the column which entered the Republic to keep order took possession of the government. It is therefore hard to see what there is in the case to excite the sympathy of Irishmen, and harder still to see the propriety of showing sympathy by filibustering. A member is sent to Parliament to speak and vote, and not to engage in walking matches or matches of wakefulness. But, besides this and behind it, the Home-Rulers desire to furnish their constituents with proof of their hostility to Englishmen, and probably by perpetual irritation to create a disposition among Englishmen to get rid of them. Mr. Parnell, one of the obstructionists, further alleges that they have the lofty purpose of putting a stop to the transaction of business after midnight, considering it as injurious to the health of members, and as leading to hasty and careless legislation. Probably a stronger motive than all is the desire to annoy the English side of the House for its indifference in Irish questions to Irish opinion, a long-standing grievance, which, however, has much excuse, both in the hopeless division of Irish opinion and in the extent to which it is shaped by foreign and anti-constitutional influences.

On Tuesday, July 31, the right wing of the Russian army in Bulgaria suffered a severe defeat at Plevna, about twenty miles S.E.W. of Nicopolis. Some twelve days before, General Krüdener, commanding the Ninth corps, had been repulsed there with heavy loss by Osman Pasha. The position of the latter seriously threatened the right flank of the Russians, while Mehemet Ali's forces were slowly feeling their way to assail the left. If the Russian operations were to be continued on both sides of the Balkans, one of these enemies had to be forced far back or crippled. It was evidently easier to put Osman out of the way, whose base, Widdin, was both remote and isolated. But the attack was made with insufficient forces, and those including mainly the Ninth corps, which was to a degree demoralized by its former defeat. According to the correspondent of the *London Daily News*, a very competent eye-witness, whose telegraphic report has been transmitted across the ocean, the attacking army consisted of 32,000 infantry and three brigades of cavalry, with 160 guns, a rather disproportionately large amount of artillery. The Turkish position, in a kind of horse-shoe form around Plevna, with both flanks resting on the river Vid, west of the town, was a naturally very strong one, and it was held by a force estimated superior to the Russian in numbers, and, as the fighting has shown, not inferior in obstinate valor. The attack was begun about 9.30 A.M. of the 31st—for there was no fighting on the 30th, all reports to the contrary notwithstanding—by Baron Krüdener, commanding the right, whose task it was to force the Turkish centre at Grivitza, east of Plevna, and the adjoining north flank, while Prince Shakhovskii was to take Radishevo, south-east of Plevna, and two minor detachments were to shield the Russian flanks from counter assaults.

We have a spirited and probably trustworthy account of the action under the lead of Shakhovskii, who was accompanied by the correspondent of the *News*, while of Krüdener we are only briefly told that he silenced the Turkish cannon at Grivitza, but spent the whole afternoon in unavailing endeavors to force the Turks from their earthworks, desisting after dark, after having suffered considerable loss. Krüdener was, perhaps, slow; "Shakhovskii was

rash." He easily carried Radishevo, and with an apparently total disregard of the operations on his right, as well as of the cost in blood, stormed two successive positions before him, but was unable to hold the second, and finally his troops fell back, shattered and decimated, before the advancing Turks, and late in the evening the retreat became a flight in the wildest confusion, the general himself and his staff losing their way, and many of the fugitives running as far as Sistova. Both wings next day fell back upon or even behind the Osma River, but, according to the latest reports, they have since reoccupied the positions held before the battle, Krüdener being at Turkish-Trstenik and Shakhovskii at Poradin. Their losses are officially admitted at St. Petersburg to have exceeded 5,000, a figure which may be considerably below the mark. Something like a panic prevailed at Sistova and Simnitza after the battle, and wild apprehensions were given vent to by the correspondents at the Russian headquarters generally. To say the least, the defeat was a disaster which deranged all the sanguine speculations indulged in before. Some sudden outbursts of fear also divulged the fact that the Russian forces at Tirnova, at Gabrova, the north entrance to the Shipka pass, and elsewhere were far from being as strong as was formerly supposed at a distance. The safety of the troops south of the Balkans seemed to be gravely compromised.

The Emperor Alexander, not satisfied with hurrying on to the line of the Osma scattered detachments from Rumania and reinforcements from less exposed positions in Bulgaria, immediately after the battle ordered by ukase the mobilization of the entire imperial guard and several other divisions, and the march of the bulk of them, without delay, from the interior of Russia to the Danube. Another ukase, dated Biela, July 22 (probably O. S.), decreed a levy of 188,000 of the landwehr. It is also reported that General Zimmermann's army was recalled from the Dobrudja, where its movements had become feebly tentative; that the active co-operation of the entire Rumanian army was asked for; and that General Gourko was directed to retire from beyond the Balkans, guarding only the Shipka pass. Whether so directed or not, Gourko has been compelled by the advance of Suleiman Pasha, and a number of unsuccessful engagements in the valley of the Tunja, to fall back on Shipka. Suleiman occupying Yeni Sagbra, Eski Sagbra, and, finally, Kazanlik, less than ten miles from the pass. If Gourko is to hold the latter securely, the Turks must be dislodged from Selvi, which they occupied a few days ago, and which is somewhat nearer Gabrova than is Tirnova. A few days may show whether it is the intention of the Russians to resume the offensive, here or at Plevna, against the forces directed by Osman Pasha. The operations under the Russian Crown-Prince against Rustchuk seem to be suspended, either in consequence of a drain on his troops for the sake of reinforcing Krüdener and Shakhovskii, or of the movements of Mehemet Ali in the valley of the Lom, where the Russians are now also said to be concentrating in great force. A speedy collision here would not be surprising, though if Mehemet Ali is strong enough to act at option, a bold move against Tirnova, in conjunction with Osman Pasha, would seem to promise him important results.

The news from the Asiatic theatre of war is meagre, as it has been for weeks; but a great deal of speculation is afloat concerning the future movements of the Russians, who are said to have been strongly reinforced and to be ready for a new advance. The Turks claim an advantage in a fight near Ardahan, but they have evacuated their position near Iori, on the Caucasian coast, south-east of Sukhum Kaleh, which had become untenable. This probably ends their aggressive operations in that quarter. The troops withdrawn may be sent with others, to be embarked at Batum—as is reported—either to Varna, as a reinforcement for Mehemet Ali, or to a new reserve camp near Constantinople, the creation of which is announced. The insurrectionary movement in Bosnia has collapsed with the defeat, on August 4, of Despotovitch, who has sought refuge on Austrian territory.

THE OHIO DEMAGOGY.

THE platform of the Ohio Republicans has a "labor plank," dictated by the strikes, which some of the papers are disposed to think at least harmless, but which we cannot help considering as one of the most dangerous and alarming results of the late troubles. It is a species of mischief, too, which one naturally expected to find in an aggravated form in the resolutions of the Democratic convention; but the Republicans have far surpassed them in it. The trouble from which the industry and credit of the country have just received such a tremendous shock originated, as everybody knows, in great confusion of mind among a large body of ignorant and unreflecting men regarding their relations both to their employers and to the community at large. They apparently did not see that their right to withdraw from work was no stronger than the right of the employers to give work to whom they pleased, and no stronger than the right of other men to take their vacant places, and no stronger than the right of the community to open highways and peaceful travel, no matter how dissatisfied brakemen and firemen might be with their wages. Any one in a conspicuous position who says anything at this crisis to deepen this confusion—nay more, any one who, having the power, by clear and candid speech, to dissipate it, refrains from speaking at a crisis like this—incur a weighty responsibility. We must not forget, in estimating the guilt of the rioters, that they are but acting out theories suggested or propounded by more knowing men than themselves, and, indeed, following the example of people more knowing than themselves. Three things have, during the past fifteen years, powerfully contributed to the demoralization of the working classes—(1) the absurd power attributed by inflationist demagogues to money manufactured by the Government, and the abuse heaped on capitalists for advocating a return to honest currency; (2) the attack of the Grangers on the railroads, in order to compel them to carry goods at prices fixed, not by the cost of transportation but by the necessities of people living along the line—an attack in no way more respectable or defensible than that of the strikers on railroad property, but less shocking because made with legislative majorities instead of clubs and pistols; and (3) the constant preaching by philanthropists of the "rights of labor," and the rarity of any mention of its duties, thus placing the manual laborer in the position of a child who was entitled to everything he could get and owed nobody anything—and, in fact, placing him apart from everybody whose labor was not manual. Of course, it is impossible to say with certainty which of these agencies has been most influential in bringing about the present crisis, but we think most probably the Granger movement, because in it property in railroads was singled out for special criticism, as in some manner distinguishable from other property, so as to make attacks on it more excusable, the only real distinction being that it was property necessarily committed to trustees, and, owing to defects in the law, shamefully mismanaged.

The reason why the "labor agitation," as it is called, has not attracted more attention, and met with more condemnation hitherto, has been that people supposed that, like much of the other wild talk of the day, it would be lost in air, and serve the useful purpose of a vent for vague discontent. Now that it has ended in violence, and promises to produce more; now that it is plain that a portion of the laboring class has been converted into a powder magazine, and that it is the highways of the country, on which its whole system of credit and industry rests, that are threatened by the explosion, it is surely the duty both of parties and individuals to refrain from exciting hopes that cannot possibly be realized, and suggesting plans which cannot possibly be carried out. Is there not, when the country is absolutely staggering under the blows of mad and lawless labor-rioters, who seek to rule or ruin, something almost criminal in a "plank" of this kind?

"Resolved, That we view with alarm the present disturbed condition of the country, as evinced by the extensive strikes of workmen, and followed by the destruction of life and property in different parts of the country; and while we deprecate each and every resort to violence or disorder, and cordially approve the action of

our national and State authorities in their efforts to enforce the supremacy of the law, yet we do most heartily sympathize with the condition of the honest and industrious laborers who are willing to work, but remain unemployed, or are employed at wages inadequate to comfort and independence; and, as an earnest of our desire to find a remedy for their condition, we recommend, first, that Congress establish a National Bureau of Industry; second, that Congress exert its authority over all national highways of trade by prescribing and enforcing such reasonable regulations as will tend to promote safety of travel, secure fair returns for capital invested and fair wages to employees, preventing mismanagement, improper discriminations, and the aggrandizement of officials at the expense of stockholders and shippers and employees; third, that provision be made for statutory arbitrations between employers and employees to adjust controversies, reconcile interests, and establish justice and equity between them."

In this there is a distinct acknowledgment that a man who is willing to work at wages adequate to what he considers "comfort and independence," whatever that may mean, and cannot find it, has some claim on the Government for a direct "remedy." The Convention, therefore, recommends as such "remedy" the "establishment of a National Bureau of Industry," but refrains from saying what the nature and functions of this body will be; and doubtless thousands of workmen will take it to mean some kind of intelligence office, where the Government will provide them with employment at wages "adequate to comfort and independence." If it does not mean this, it would be absolutely useless as a "remedy" for enforced idleness. It next proposes—and this is the most reprehensible part of the resolution—that Congress should single out railroad property for such "reasonable regulation" as would not only promote safety of travel, "prevent mismanagement, improper discriminations, and the aggrandizement of officials at the expense of stockholders and shippers," but "secure fair returns to the capital invested, and fair wages to employees." "Fair returns to capital invested" can only come from plenty of business—which is just what roads now lack—and it is little short of wicked to pretend that Congress can ever supply it, and can enable railroad companies, in default of it, to pay "fair wages," which we suppose means "wages adequate to comfort and independence," to employees. The remaining recommendation, for "statutory arbitration" between employers and employees, would be sensible, probably, if it were a little more definite, as arbitration means the decision of such things as disputants choose to submit. But consider for one moment the nature of the burden which these recommendations, if carried out, would impose on the Government; consider the effect on every species of industry, and on credit and capital, of having the adequacy of wages, and the efficiency of the Government regulations in keeping wages up to the proper point, made an issue in every election, and the one subject of every party platform. It is not rash to predict that if such topics get a foothold in party politics through organized party conventions, every other will speedily disappear, and the spirit of rationality which is now the salt of American institutions will disappear with it. Our politics, in short, would be rapidly assimilated to those of France, in which there is only one question, viz., how best to save property from spoliation by the poor, and how to prevent the conversion of the whole state into a paupers' workshop. The French have provided a temporary solution of the problem by keeping a large standing army constantly in readiness to kill malcontents on as large a scale as may be necessary. We should come to that ourselves, if it should ever be necessary in order to provide security; but we could not come to it without the sacrifice of nearly everything that now constitutes our boast and glory. It is well to warn party orators and wire-pullers, therefore, while it is yet time, that no free government in the world can stand the strain which would be imposed by taking charge of the laborers of the country as wards, and either providing them or pretending to provide them with "adequate wages," or in any way interfering between employers and workmen to regulate the division of profits. Any such attempts open a straight and easy way to destruction. There is probably no government less fitted for such a rôle than ours, for neither our manners nor the condition of our administrative machinery is adapted to it. Our whole system is based on the

theory that every American citizen is a fully-equipped man, standing squarely on his own feet, and abundantly competent to make his own bargains. We have no political provision for voters who need paternal care. Consequently, Americans who got into the position of wards would probably be a more helpless and irrational body than even France has produced; we should have to recast our institutions from top to bottom for their accommodation, and the conversion of the States into huge almshouses would be very rapid. Before that consummation was reached, of course our credit and industry would suffer terribly; they *will* suffer terribly if any attempts are made to reach it; and business men, and all men who live by honest industry and expect to save for their old age, cannot too severely frown on disgraceful demagoguery like this of the Ohio Convention.

THE RIOTERS AND THE REGULAR ARMY.

THE recent railway riots have produced a serious conviction among law-abiding citizens that the country possesses no force adequate to the protection of life and property against a certain class of disorders which are liable to break out at any time. Before the Rebellion commenced we had been lulled into a false security by our geographical distance from the other great powers of the globe, and we allowed our army to dwindle to insignificant proportions. With the costly awkwardness which attends all efforts to meet a great emergency without previous training, we took up the art of war, and made it our principal business for some years, and when the immediate end was accomplished, we concluded that there could be no other great revolt against law and order upon our soil for a generation or perhaps a century to come. So we hastened to strip our military and naval establishments down to the merest shreds. A few years have passed away, and we find ourselves confronted by a spirit of rapine capable of burning and plundering cities, confiscating property by wholesale, and throttling the entire commerce of the country. There is a frantic call for troops from twenty different quarters at once; but there are no troops on the seaboard, or so few that the authorities at Washington are in doubt whether they can be spared from the more important task of guarding the national treasury from pillage. Chief Joseph with his handful of red men is making such stubborn resistance on the confines of Oregon that soldiers have been hurried all the way from Georgia to suppress him. The only forces available for the preservation of Baltimore, Pittsburgh, and a dozen other cities that have been clutched by mobs, are a few companies and fractions of companies performing garrison duty in the forts, and such militia as can be gathered up from the heterogeneous systems of the several States, supposing that they have any militia at all.

The militia at best are a clumsy substitute either for a military or a police establishment. The militiaman to be good for anything must be a business man, a skilled artisan, a property-holder, somebody having a stake in the country and performing useful service in his station, else he is as likely to fraternize with a mob as to fire at it. When his services are wanted he must drop his employment, however important to his family and to society, and go hundreds of miles perhaps, most commonly without rations or camp equipage, to be billeted on the inhabitants of some distant town, to whom he is necessarily a nuisance, to perform duties with which he is unfamiliar and which are distasteful to him. This is the militiaman in his best estate. His worst was exhibited in West Virginia, where he turned his back upon the mob or mingled with it on terms of amity. In Indiana no militia was discovered at all, so that the rioters had everything their own way, and took charge of railroads, appointed officers, ran trains, collected fares, and even established guards to protect such property as they had no use for. That the militia of New York and Philadelphia did the best they could, or that any militia could, and that the presence of a large body in this city probably prevented any outbreak here, it would be ungenerous to deny. The fact remains that society is substantially unprotected in this country, however prompt and efficient the militia may be at a few localities. In most of the cities where forces

were ultimately collected to overpower the rioters they consisted of citizens hastily sworn in as special police, and having no superiority over the mob except in their average intelligence and the lawfulness of their enlistment.

Such a condition of things is intolerable, and can be amended only by an increase of the military establishment of the nation. The elements of the recent outbreak are still in a state of effervescence, and may develop into new riots and further destruction of life and property at any time, unless confronted by trained bodies of men in sufficient numbers to overawe or to crush them at the first onset. If there had been a regular army reserve of twenty-five thousand men over and above the number needed for the Indian and border service, judiciously distributed, there would have been no riots and no stoppage of trains, or, at most, only a trivial interruption of business, to be settled by arbitration between strikers and employers. With such a reserve force, the city of Pittsburgh, with its arsenal and Government foundry, would have been the natural station for five or six hundred well-officered and disciplined soldiers, in whose presence no formidable mob could have been collected. The five millions or more of property wantonly sacrificed there would have been saved and the bloodshed averted. Even with the small force of regulars that the Government was able to muster, it was proved that the rioters had more respect for one Federal bayonet than for a whole company of militia. The objection of expense in maintaining an increased military establishment is fully answered by the fact that the regular army is able to *prevent* such disturbances, while the militia, at best, serve only to suppress them after they have run a more or less destructive course. The losses incurred at Pittsburgh, Baltimore, San Francisco, and elsewhere, by burning and sacking, feebly represent the real loss sustained by the country through the interruption of its daily traffic. The convulsion propagated itself through all the avenues of trade and industry, producing its worst results among the classes who depend upon their wages for their bread. The price of provisions rose immediately in all the cities, and the day-laborer and washerwoman thus paid more than their share, under any equitable system of taxation, to suppress the revolt of the fireman, trackman, and tramp.

It is worse than useless to dignify these transactions by calling them disputes between labor and capital. The right to strike is conceded by everybody. The right to seize other people's property and to prevent other men from selling their labor on terms satisfactory to themselves is denied by the law of every civilized country. Common sense does not allow any parleying over that fallacy, but insists that it be refuted with gunpowder and ball whenever it takes the shape of combined robbery and public tumult. Society does not owe any particular rate of wages to anybody. It owes protection of life and property and personal rights to all its members, and nothing more. Hospitals, almshouses, and asylums for the poor and infirm are among the marks and evidences of a superior civilization, but it cannot be said that society owes even these to its weaker members. They are charitable establishments, to be promoted and perfected by both legislation and private enterprise as tending not merely to relieve human suffering, but to bless the giver equally with the receiver. Yet it is a complete misconception to say that society owes these things to its pauper classes, for if it owes them they have the right to judge of the measure of the debt and to vote the money out of the public treasury to discharge it. Still less does society owe a dollar a day to a man who can earn only seventy-five cents. Hence all arguments grounded upon the alleged right of strikers to higher wages than the open market affords should be cast out of the reckoning, so far as society is concerned, and turned over to volunteer courts of arbitration, where alone there are any data for weighing them. What society needs is adequate force to curb their premature expression in the form of arson and general pillage.

The British Islands, protected like ourselves by sea from the danger of foreign invasion, maintain a force of not less than 40,000 regular troops as an auxiliary police for home duty. Their territory is small and their population compact, while ours are widely extended

and loosely joined together. The need of a standing army in the sense of continental Europe does not exist in either country, but the need of an efficient auxiliary to the police system is far greater here than in England, for the twofold reason that the ground to be policed is here much vaster, and, if the truth must be confessed, we have more of the spirit of communism and turbulence to deal with than the mother country. Twenty-five thousand trained soldiers, in addition to our present force, under the immediate orders of the President, when lawfully called upon by any State, are few enough for the existing needs of the country. No Democrat, however zealous for State rights, can pretend that such a force would be dangerous in the hands of an Administration which has remitted Packard and Chamberlain to their own resources, and withdrawn all its troops from the South. No champion of public liberty can pretend that the country is in any danger from the misuse of twenty-five regiments whose pay and rations depend upon the votes of Congress from year to year. And it will be wise for politicians to remember when this subject comes forward that the public has been profoundly stirred by the events of the past three weeks, and that the alarm which exists is not likely to be soon forgotten. The doings of the Electoral Commission will exert a faint influence upon the future course of politics, as compared with the doings of a possible Commune holding the commerce of the country by the throat and sitting in judgment over the rights of property.

THE PARTIES IN THE FRENCH CANVASS.

STRASSBURG, July 11, 1877.

THERE are problems in politics which it is somewhat difficult to solve. I have just crossed the eastern part of France between Paris and Alsace, and I find myself now in the midst of the Vosges Mountains. The newspaper which is before me is the Strassburg official paper, and I find articles in it which seem written by the same men who write the provincial newspapers of Nancy, of Toul, of Lunéville, of Lorraine and Burgundy. Now, I know, as everybody knows here, that the inspiration of the Strassburg newspapers is in Berlin. How is it that on both sides of the Vosges I find the same attacks against Marshal MacMahon, against the prefects of M. de Fourtou, against the régime of "moral order," against the Duc de Broglie, against Clericalism and Ultramontanism? If there is a ruling passion in Lorraine, Burgundy, and Champaign, it is the fear of the enemy who has so long occupied those rich provinces, and who is now the master of Alsace; how can fear produce the same effects as the insolence of victory? The German newspapers have a *mot d'ordre*: they describe MacMahon as the conscious or unconscious tool of the Vatican; his triumph in the general elections would be the signal for a war of Ultramontanism against Germany. This *mot d'ordre* has an echo in all the Republican papers of France. The Republicans seem to take it for granted that if MacMahon wins the great battle of the elections, he will have his hands free for a campaign against Italy and against Germany—the arch enemy of the Vatican. Gambetta said so in the great speech he made before the Chamber was dissolved; and when the ministers denied any warlike intentions, he reminded France that the Emperor Napoleon III. had also denied such intentions just before the last plébiscite of 1870; the peasants had been told that if they voted *yes* on that famous occasion, *yes* would mean peace; and only a few months afterwards Napoleon III. entered upon his fatal war against Germany. This same accusation is brought every day against the Marshal and his government. Some of the accusers may be sincere, many of them must be insincere; but sincerity seems to be looked upon as a mere weakness in politics. "All is fair in love or war" is the motto of our politicians.

Whatever may be the feelings or sentiments of the political leaders who represent the Marshal as bent on war, there is no doubt that their representations have much effect on the popular mind. I could not help seeing a trace of it in the language of the press in the eastern part of France, so much exposed to an invasion. Just look at a map of France, and you will see that there is nothing which can prevent German armies, collected at Metz and behind the screen of the Vosges Mountains, from rolling in a few days like a gigantic tide over the whole east of France. Two forts have been erected on the hills of Toul, which now command the Eastern Railroad, but Nancy is not even defended, and would be at the mercy of the enemy. It is not to be wondered at if these eastern populations have a very nervous feeling about Germany. They know that the

Pickelhaube is not far off, and they hate men who are represented to them as the agents of a warlike policy. Not that these populations are effeminate or even timid; but they know that even a successful war would be to them at first a terrible calamity, and they know that France is not ready for an offensive war. Gambetta struck, therefore, the vibrating chords of our population when he said to the Government of the 16th of May: You are preparing war, and you are preparing it because you are "le gouvernement des curés"—the government of the priesthood and of the Vatican. The general elections will show how far these accusations have been echoed in the country; in the east of France Gambetta has produced the desired effect, and the provinces which are exposed to the first blows will certainly vote against MacMahon. They will do so for two reasons: the first I have just explained; the second is the want of prestige of MacMahon in the east of France, and the great prestige which still attaches there to the person of M. Thiers. Thiers is an idol in the departments which have been occupied by the Germans; he is still called the liberator of the territory; he made peace, he paid the ransom of France, he is the man who travelled all over Europe looking for allies for his country. His name is honored in all the courts; he is the only Frenchman whom Prince Bismarck thought a diplomatic adversary worthy of himself. These are the things you hear every day and in everybody's mouth at Nancy and all over Lorraine and Burgundy. And what do the Lorrainers say of MacMahon? They will tell you that on the day of Reichshofen MacMahon ought not to have fought so long against overwhelming forces; that when he found that the corps of General de Failly did not join him, he ought to have left his positions and retreated in good order through the Vosges; that he could have done so even at two o'clock, and that he sacrificed his corps after that hour. They saw the scattered and miserable remnants of his army go through their towns and villages; they saw the Marshal himself arrive at Nancy, with his staff; they saw him depart for Châlons. He is not in their eyes the hero of the Malakoff and of Magenta. They cannot forget those terrible days after Woerth, and the unopposed arrival of the Germans; they are not of the Celtic race any more than the Burgundians; they do not love and admire an unsuccessful hero.

Though it is almost impossible to say how the deep currents of universal suffrage are running, I think it may be safely asserted that in all the eastern part of France, in Lorraine, in Burgundy, and also, I believe, in the valley of the Rhone, the Government will be defeated in the general elections. On the other side, it is probable that the Government will find some support in the north of France, in Normandy, in Brittany, in the central part of France, and in Guienne. Politically speaking, the country is almost divided into two parts by a line running north and south and passing through Paris. Much depends in this terrible issue on the manner in which the question is presented to the popular sphinx. If you could bid the sphinx, as Napoleon used to do, "Choose between me and nothing," the sphinx would have to vote for the Government. The endeavor has been made in the present case to put the question in this shape: "Choose between MacMahon and Gambetta, between a Conservative Republic and the Commune"; but the country does not seem to be willing to see the horns of this dilemma; MacMahon does not necessarily mean a Conservative Republic, and the triumph of the Opposition does not necessarily imply Gambetta and the Commune. If MacMahon was a young man, determined to establish a Conservative Republic—a republic which would appear as "the best of monarchies"—the country would perhaps side with him, notwithstanding all the efforts of the Left; but MacMahon is old, he is very near the end of his official term, and nobody knows if he is very anxious to remain in office after 1880. If he is not, if his Conservative Republic is only an interregnum of two or three years, the country may be pardoned for looking to the future and for enquiring, What is to come after 1880? "Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof"; still, we cannot help hearing the Imperialists say, "After 1880, we mean to re-establish the Empire; we shall help MacMahon in his crusade against the men of the 4th of September, we will sweep with him the Republican stables, and when all is ready, and when the country is accustomed to look upon all Republicans as outcasts, we will call for Napoleon IV.; and the army, if it is necessary, will help us to replace him on the throne. But the army will perhaps not even be asked to act; we can do everything legally, make a revision, turn the republic into an empire as quietly as we make a law on a trifling matter of administration."

The Monarchists, incensed by this audacious language, have come forward, and in their turn have said: "If you go to the polls with the cry of 'Vive l'Empereur!' we can go to the polls with the cry of 'Vive le Roi!' If you offer to a fatigued country the monarchy which fell twice—at Wa-

terloo and at Sedan—we can offer it a respectable monarchy, the monarchy which added Alsace and Lorraine to the national territory. If you break the Conservative truce, we can break it also. And in reality the truce is broken; the so-called Conservative union could only remain a union if its leaders kept within the limits of the Republican constitution. As soon as the constitution is put in question, as soon as the word of revision is pronounced, the union becomes an empty phrase."

The Republicans in this new contest have, therefore, the advantage of a very simple and tangible policy; they have no other watchword but the Republic and the Constitution. Their adversaries, on the other hand, though they have apparently but one object, the maintenance of the Government of MacMahon till 1880, are profoundly divided on every other point. They are not only divided with regard to the succession of Marshal MacMahon in 1880 (some speak of re-electing MacMahon till the Comte de Chambord dies, some of placing Napoleon IV. on the throne, some of trying to obtain some concessions from the Comte de Chambord and placing him on the throne); the MacMahonists, the Imperialists, and the Monarchists are also divided in their political tendencies. While the Imperialists talk of nothing but repression and state of siege, and believe that the only way to govern France is the method employed after the 2d of December, the Legitimists and Orléanists, who can work in common since the visit of the Comte de Paris to Frohsdorf, are somewhat ashamed of these illiberal doctrines. They believe in a liberal monarchy, and would, in the last analysis, prefer a republic, with all its dangers, to the "quiet" of an empire. The so-called "order" of absolute monarchy is very pleasant for foreigners who live in the Champs Elysées, and who are invited to the court balls. It seems less pleasant to those who lost their sons at Sedan, or to those who were born in Alsace.

It is very extraordinary that some years after 1870 the fate of France seems now as uncertain as it was then. During the war Prince Bismarck was anxiously looking for somebody with whom he could treat; he wanted the signature of France, and who could give it then? It is probable that Bismarck can wait now more quietly; he does not want the signature of France now to any treaty; our political divisions and agitations have become a guarantee for Germany. I read every day long eulogies in German of the sensible Gambetta; the "Reptilien" praise the wisdom and the moderation of the man whom M. Thiers once called the "fou furieux." All's well that ends well; and we must look with a philosophical eye on events which are controlled by a power superior to the power of man.

A GERMAN EULOGIST OF GAMBETTA.

I.

Freiburg, July 18.

M. DE SAINT VALLIER, after the war of 1870-71 agent of the French Government in Nancy, recently said at a banquet in that city: "I must add that the man with whom I had to deal always tried, as far as he could, as far as his military duties and his severe instructions would allow, to mitigate the hard régime of foreign occupation; he did not conceal the great esteem in which he held the qualities of our nation." For this simple acknowledgment that General Manteuffel had proved himself to be a gentleman, the patriotism of M. de Saint Vallier is called in question by the "conservative" press of France. The *Pays* writes: "Among all *honnêtes* people in Nancy and its environs this shameless language has called forth a deep and just indignation." If, in the course of time, this unhealthy state of the public mind in France can be overcome by anything except *revanche*, it certainly can be done only by the constant accumulation of proofs that the victors really *do* appreciate the great qualities of the French nation, and that they deem themselves none too good to learn from the vanquished. If this be so, Herr von der Goltz has rendered a great service as well to France as to Germany by his book on 'Léon Gambetta and his Armies.* This book might almost be said to have created a sensation, and, as a well-known general assured me the other day, even in high military circles it is read and discussed with the greatest interest. Herr von der Goltz is a captain (*Hauptmann*) in the Prussian general staff, and during the war was attached to the staff of the army of Prince Friedrich Karl. So he has had the best opportunities possible for valuable personal observations, and his qualifications as a military critic he has already proved by a detailed account of Friedrich Karl's campaign, based upon the official journal of the Prince's head-

quarters—a work very highly commended by the military authorities for its clearness, moderation, good sense, and impartiality.

If any exception is to be taken to the author's general judgment, it is certainly not because he undervalues the talents and the merits of the dictator. According to him, Gambetta's stature rises more than a head above the rest of his countrymen, and but one inch is lacking to make him a great man in the fullest sense of the word. History "from a more distant standpoint will see him more isolated in the midst of his people and his time, and this will make his greatness shine forth more clearly, while the shadows and spots on the figure will disappear" (p. 231). His character is called "grand in many respects, almost of the dimensions of antiquity" (*beinahe nach antiken Masse angelegt*), p. 58. At first sight every German will be tempted to smile at such opinions as the ridiculous exaggerations of a young enthusiast, who had better keep to drilling his soldiers, or, at best, try the creative powers of his vigorous imagination in novel-writing. We have—to our great astonishment and rather unwillingly—in the last two or three years come to the conviction that Gambetta is able to learn something, and that, after all, serious men may be forced to speak of him in a serious way; but there was no doubt whatever that, as to his dictatorship, M. Thiers had hit the mark when he called him *un fou enragé*. Yet Herr von der Goltz evidently is not a man whose judgment can be passed over with a sneer, though his book might have been still better and more valuable if his pulse went at the rate of eighty instead of ninety in a minute.

In Europe, a protracted war has become an utter impossibility; and, Paris is France—these two assertions, as the author states, had assumed the character of axiomatic truths. Gambetta proved that, though not wholly unfounded, both of them are far from being literally true. On the 6th of September, 1870, the *Journal Officiel* wrote: "Everybody understands that where the fight is going on there also the power must be. The army of invasion marches on Paris. In Paris all the hopes of the country are concentrated." So, indeed, everybody thought in France. As a matter of course, Paris alone had to furnish all the members of the revolutionary government, and, as a matter of course, the revolutionary government allowed itself to be shut up in a besieged capital, for if there was yet any possibility of saving France it could, of course, only be done by Paris. Gambetta, as we shall afterwards see, shared this general sentiment to a great and even fatal extent, but, at the same time, he, and he alone, qualified the sentence in a most essential manner. He understood that as long as Paris could communicate with France only by means of balloons and pigeons, Paris could not give her the necessary impulse, and he resolved that his own brains and his own heart should be the centre from which this impulse was to come. He understood that Paris was in danger of being strangled, and that therefore Paris could not save France, but had to be saved by France. He understood that if success was at all possible all France had to come to the rescue, and he undertook to lash the whole nation, so to say, in twenty-four hours into the irrevocable resolution from that moment to know but one aim for all its energies—the liberation of the national soil. The author calls attention to the fact that one of the severest trials even a victorious army can be subjected to is to see the end of one war unexpectedly turned into the beginning of a new one. This is illustrated by the lingering and comparatively resultless campaign into which even Napoleon I. was forced by only 80,000 badly-armed and in no respect very efficient Russian soldiers, though the conquest of almost the whole Prussian monarchy had cost him but the one day of Jena and Auerstaedt. And if even to a victorious army it is a hard test to be called upon to break more laurel branches for a new wreath, when it was just going to rejoice over the secure possession of the first one, then certainly it is no small thing to turn a whole nation at a moment's notice into one huge military camp, after it has just been hurled from the very pinnacle of self-glorification into a fathomless sea of disasters. It is this which Herr von der Goltz has brought to our consciousness in a way and to a degree in which it has never been done before. It may be that Gambetta was not a madman—and in this I disagree with the author: I think history will, under certain qualifications, accept the *fou enragé* of M. Thiers—but hardly anybody who has read this book will henceforth deny that there was not only method but also an awful moral grandeur in his madness. We Germans glory in our national uprising of 1813, and well may we do so. And yet, was it equal to that which Gambetta caused France to make in 1870? In many respects—and among them the most important ones—it certainly was, and even more than that; but in others it is undoubtedly not stand the comparison. France never could have done what she has done if she had been, like us, a people who were a nation only by their lan-

* 'Léon Gambetta und seine Armeen. Von Colmar Freiherrn von der Goltz.' Mit einer Karte. Berlin, 1877.

grunge, some dim historical recollections, and the dreams of some of their poets. But, on the other hand, with us the national resurrection had been preparing for four and even six years, and we rose after the elements had struck a tremendous blow at the great conqueror. In France the army and the whole nation had expected a military promenade to Berlin, and now, after a few weeks, the armies were either shattered to pieces or captured, the legitimate government had vanished, the capital, which for centuries had done most of the thinking, resolving, and even feeling for the whole country, was writhing in the iron coils of the victorious army. And the man who thought himself able to bid the nation rise at once after this unparalleled physical and moral collapse to a greater and more protracted war, was a lawyer, a man known only as a parliamentary opposition speaker, a man who, though young, had talked a good deal, but never before tried his strength in acting. Has there ever existed a German who under similar circumstances would have dared so much as to think of attempting anything like this? Never! Herr von der Goltz is right in saying that Germany never could have a Gambetta. True enough, the result of all the exertions of Gambetta was that France had to submit to much harder conditions than those she would have received after Sedan. But this does not change the fact that the Germans had to grapple four months with the improvised armies of the Republic, while it had taken them less than seven weeks to overthrow the Empire.

Herr von der Goltz does not overlook the important physical and moral elements which Gambetta found ready to his hands, and without which the *fou enragé* would have remained the *fou ridicule*, which the Germans at first thought him to be. He counts them up as follows: The character of the French, which values the military glory of the nation above any other thing; the ease with which in France the masses can be aroused to great political demonstrations; the great number of small *rentiers* who principally live on "coffee, absinthe, and newspapers"; the "administrative machinery," inherited from the Empire, which, under the direction of new headmen, continued to "work admirably"; the superiority of France on the sea. "It is a mistake that the French fleet played no part in the last war. If Germany had been able to blockade the French coasts and hermetically shut up the harbors, this second epoch of the war would have been an impossibility." The author is of opinion that France received more than half of all her war material from foreign countries; her own manufactories could, at first, not furnish more than 20,000 chassepots a month. Moreover, the connection between the different parts of the country was partly kept up by sea; concentrations of troops could be made at points where they would have been impossible if the French had not had this highway all to themselves; and, finally, there was "the comparatively great undisturbedness and security" with which France could prepare herself for the new war in consequence of the main body of the German army being fastened to Metz and Paris. If Bazaine had not stayed with his whole army in Metz, the whole army of Prince Friedrich Karl would not have remained there either. The author, therefore, concludes: "Perhaps the dictator owes nobody so much as the man whom he has persecuted and vilified so much." The general result to which he is brought by his reasoning on these points is: "So the new Carnot was favored by many circumstances"; but "even with such instruments in his hands, only a mind, a will, such as flowers but once in historical epochs, could accomplish so much."

And much indeed it was that he accomplished. When Gambetta arrived in Tours on October 9 things looked pretty much like a chaos. "There were recruits enough in the depots, but almost throughout there was as yet no organization of regiments and battalions. Artillery and pioneers did not exist at all. Everywhere arms were wanting." There was neither a minister of war nor a single good map in Tours. Gambetta's friend, the civil engineer (!) Freycinet, was entrusted with the department of war after it had been declined by Admiral Fourichon; and after the happy discovery that the widow of some higher officer was in possession of a map, 15,000 photographic copies were distributed in the army. Up to that time even the commander of a division had to get along with the *Uebersichtsblätter* of Joanne's geographical hand-book. A flood of most incisive laws was poured over France. From the 13th of October to the 11th of November talent and success were made the only rules for advancement; the auxiliary army (comprehending all the new formations) was created; the local defense of the departments organized; the removal of stores and the destruction of the means of communication reduced to a system; all men between 21 and 40 years capable of bearing arms called into service; the departments charged with furnishing a complete battery for every 100,000 inhabitants; the prefects rendered personally re-

sponsible for the execution of all these decrees; the battalions of working-men organized; all civil engineers, street-wards, architects, railroad companies, etc., placed at the disposal of the minister of war. And these decrees did not remain idle words. France knows how to respect and how to obey an iron will. "Frenchmen, the first of all is, that you do not allow yourselves to be preoccupied by anything except the war—war to the knife." With patriotism and the revolutionary tradition of the invincibility of republican armies as levers, the reckless determination of the dictator, which did not brook the slightest opposition, lifted France out of her party feuds and her despondency; the behest was obeyed almost to the letter. Gambetta "stamped out of the ground" half a million of soldiers with 1,400 guns. During his dictatorship France furnished on the average every day 5,000 soldiers and—under Colonel Thoumas—two batteries with all the material. The 15th corps had been badly beaten before Orleans on the 10th and 11th of October; three weeks later it mustered 60,000 men with 128 guns. Chanzy had suffered a series of checks from the 6th to the 12th of January; on the 19th, he was completely defeated in the decisive battle at St. Quentin, and on the 27th his army counted again 156,000 men with 54 batteries. In the opinion of Herr von der Goltz, Gambetta proved himself to be not only an efficient organizer, but a real genius in this respect; he asserts that no minister of war, either in France or in any other country, has ever done anything comparable.

Correspondence.

THE GRANGERS AND THE STRIKERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is as amusing as anything can be in these desperate times to observe the course respecting the strikers' movement which is taken by some of the late Granger papers. But a short time ago these papers assailed the railroads for their excessively high rates, which deprived the farmer of living profits. Now they are assailing the roads for their excessively low rates, which deprive their employees of living wages. With the Grangers on the one side and the strikers on the other, the railroads are between "the devil and the deep sea." For a long while to come they will be shunned by capital as a means of investment; but this fact, so often deplored, is really the only hopeful outcome of the present troubles. What with construction frauds, competing lines, and lines through the wilderness, the capital invested in railroads has proved exceptionally unproductive, and the sharp arrest of further investment in this direction will save the further sinking of capital, and give the roads a chance to live themselves while they let the farmers and their own employees live.

SUE HARRY CLAGETT.

KEOKUK, IOWA.

THE STRIKE IN KANSAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of 26th July you name the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railroad as one of the roads which acceded to the demands of the strikers. I am not aware from what source you received this information, as it is entirely at variance with the fact. The strike existed on this road in a very mild form, and lasted less than twenty-four hours; it embraced less than 10 per cent. of the train employees and no others, and freight-trains were only interrupted on one division of the road for about twenty-four hours.

A committee of train-men had an interview with the superintendent and other officers, and was informed that no increase of pay or concessions in other form would be considered, and in the event of a general strike the road would be shut up and not opened again until men could be employed at rates fixed by the company. The members of the committee expressed themselves unanimously opposed to a strike, and agreed to exert themselves to prevent one. They undoubtedly did this, as there was no further trouble. At one division point, where the men stopped work, they were given until 12 o'clock the next day to return to duty, and, with the exception of two men, all did this before the time specified. As a rule there seemed to be no desire or intention of striking, and your statement does injustice to the employees as well as to the officers of the company.

Will you please set this matter right? and oblige,

C. F. MORSE, Genl. Supt. A., T. & S. F. R.R.

ATCHISON, Aug. 2, 1877.

GOVERNMENT OBLIGATION TO REDEEM GREENBACKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I fail to see how you can correctly describe greenbacks as "overdue paper." They are simply a promise of the United States to pay a dollar or more to bearer at an indefinite time—not *on demand*; indeed, as other notes had been previously issued payable *on demand*, that not being expressed on these is as good as an exclusion of the idea that such was intended, on a familiar principle of law. If, then, the paper is "overdue," I ask when did it become so? Those who assert that it is so now ought to be able to fix the time when payment should have been made.

I admit that there was a general implied understanding that payment would be made whenever, in the usual course of business by the ordinary laws of trade, the Government should be placed in such circumstances as would enable it to make it; and it was the faith that sooner or later this would come about that gave the greenbacks their value. That value has from time to time increased or diminished as the confidence of the public in the *ability* of the Government ultimately to pay has varied. There was no pledge, either express or implied, when the notes were originally issued that the Government would redeem them on January 1, 1879, or at any other time. Had there been, they would all along have had a greater value than they did have. When, therefore, the Resumption Act of 1875 was passed, its effect was to make that definite which before was indefinite, and to that extent to increase the value of the notes in question. It is not material to enquire precisely what the increment in value was; but whatever it was, it was a mere gratuity, for which Government received no consideration, and which constitutes no obligation upon it either in reason or morals.

It seems to me, then, that the Government cannot be called on or expected to do now any more than to fulfil its original, implied obligation, viz., to redeem its notes whenever it finds itself able to do so; and that it has to-day a perfect right to take away that which it gave two years ago without consideration, viz., the value of the greenbacks which was then added to them by the passage of the Resumption Act; and whether this is effected by repealing the law or disregarding it seems to me a matter of indifference.—Yours,

S. R. II.

NEWPORT, R. I., July 29, 1877.

[They are not overdue legally, because they cannot be made the basis of any legal claim; but they are overdue morally, because it was understood when they were issued that they would be taken up as soon as the Government could do so without too severely taxing the resources of the country. A simple promise to pay cannot, under any system of ethics, be construed as a promise to pay whenever the promisor pleases, because this would be no promise at all, any more than the remark, "Some day or other I shall, if I choose, give you a dollar." A real promise must contain an obligation which is to become binding at a certain date, or on the occurrence of some possible contingency, and this contingency is, in the case of the greenbacks, the acquisition of ability on the part of the Government to pay. That this contingency had occurred was formally acknowledged by the promisor when the purchase of bonds not yet due began. The money expended in this way was morally due to such holders of greenbacks as desired gold for them; and its application to the satisfaction of unmatured debts was *pro tanto* an act of repudiation, whatever its financial merits may have been. It was an acknowledgment in substance that we could pay, but would not.—ED. NATION.]

THE LOST ARMS OF THE VENUS OF MELOS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I perceive in a note in the *Nation* of June 7 an allusion to the tradition I picked up at Melos concerning the so-called Venus found there. I cannot be expected to presume to recall the terms of my statement, and a file of the *Nation* does not exist in Montenegro; but, as nearly as, after years of interval, I can recall what the consul, whose father and predecessor found the statue, said to me, it was that the arms were found with the body; but that, when the statue had been recovered by the French frigate from its Ottoman captor, it was found that the arms had disappeared, and that they were *supposed* either to have rested in the hold of the Turkish ship, or to have been thrown overboard for some reason or other. If the present report is true, it would appear that

the Turks, in their usual estimate of "antika," didn't care for the small pieces and left them where they were found, and where, in some way, they were again covered, accidentally or intentionally.

The carefully, and evidently *expressly*, constructed niche in which the statue was walled up was shown me, and I was assured that the arms were found beside it. All beyond that was a conjecture, so far as the final fate of the arms was concerned. The shield was an essential part of my theory, as involving the writing of a name or names on it, guerdon of victory, and I have never an instant doubted, from the pose of the statue, that it was the "motive" of it that it should hold a shield or mirror—the former if it were a Victory, the latter if it were a Venus; the latter supposition never having found a moment's credence in my mind from the time I saw the frieze of Athene-nike on the Acropolis. Those who have my book on the Acropolis may compare the Victory given from that frieze, and see that the types of the figures are the same, that of the frieze being somewhat inferior in the technique, as if done by a clever pupil working in emulation of his master, and both differ radically in type from any known Venus. Some day I hope to be able to return to the subject and produce a convincing monograph on it, with photographs.

Yours, etc.,

W. J. STILLMAN.

RIEKA, MONTENEGRO, July 8.

[Later reports concerning the recovered arms make it very doubtful whether they have anything to do with the statue to which they have been ascribed; and this quite independently of the fact that the disk held by one of them is pronounced a mirror.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. have in press 'Nurse and Patient, and Camp-Cure,' two essays by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell, and, by the same author, 'Fat and Blood, and How to Make Them'; also a revised edition of Smith's 'Elements of the Laws'; 'The Rhine from its Source to the Sea,' from the German, superbly illustrated; 'Highways and Byways of American Travel,' by Edward Strahan, Sidney Lanier, E. A. Pollard, and others; and 'Dante,' by Mrs. Oliphant, being the first volume of a series of Foreign Classics for English Readers.—Bulletin No. 42 of the Boston Public Library carries its Checklist for American Local History as far as Hampstead, and contains bibliographical articles of great value on Early English Explorations in America, the History of Mental Philosophy (Part IV.), and Russia, Turkey, and the Eastern Question.—The centennial of the battle of Bennington and of the birth of Vermont as a State will be celebrated next week (Aug. 15, 16) on the battle-ground with great élan, the President being present. The monument hereafter to be erected by the joint contributions of Vermont, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts—perhaps, also, with some aid from Congress—has yet to be assigned to the artist.—A high honor has just been paid to an American engineer, Mr. George E. Waring, jr. He has been made an honorary member of the Koninklijk Instituut van Ingenieurs of the Netherlands, on the ground of his services, as a judge at the Centennial, in behalf of the Netherlands exhibition, and of the further interest shown by him in that country in his work entitled 'A Farmer's Vacation.' Col. Waring is, we believe, aside from the Royal Princes and the highest Dutch officials, the sixth person (now living) on whom honorary membership has been bestowed—Fowler, the inventor of the steam-plough, and De Lesseps being of this number, but no other American.

—The second number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* has, like the first, a substantial and attractive appearance, betokening an assured prosperity. As we expected, the Whalley pedigree has not been allowed to pass unchallenged. In the Notes and Queries of the present issue Mr. W. H. Whitmore points out some of its weak points, and suggests that there may have been an Edward Whalley, jr., whose will Mr. Robins has presented as that of the (centenarian) regicide. This suggestion is immediately confirmed, so far as relates to the existence of such a person, by an extract from the 'Visitation of Nottinghamshire,' forwarded by the Rev. E. D. Neill, which shows that Major-General Edward Whalley had four children by his first wife (Frances being the wife of Colonel Goffe), and two by Mary Middleton, his second wife—Henry and Edward. As she died about 1662, Edward, jr., would have been at least fifty-six years of age in 1713, the date of the "Wale" will,

and therefore might very well have been "sick and weak in body" at the time of drawing it.

—A correspondent writing from Wilmington, N. C., remarks: "A 'bold litterateur' indeed, as the *Nation* (No. 630) well says, is the writer of the article on the White Mountains in *Harper's* for August—bold even to recklessness in his statement that those mountains 'are the highest elevations of land east of the Mississippi, next in altitude to the Rockies themselves.'" He then proceeds to give the altitudes of several mountains in North Carolina and Tennessee which are considerably higher than Mt. Washington. We do not copy them here, because they do not quite agree with the latest authorities, but any one who will turn to Mr. Henry Gannett's 'Lists of Elevations' may learn that there are, chiefly among the Black and Great Balsam ranges of North Carolina, and among the Great Smoky of Tennessee, no less than twenty-four peaks which are higher than Mt. Washington (Clingman's Mountain in the Black range being the highest, 6,707 feet), and that there are seventeen others surpassing 6,000 feet in height, some of which fall but a few feet short of Mt. Washington's altitude. We did not overlook the error in *Harper's*, but we thought the general fact to the contrary sufficiently notorious.

—The tenth annual report of the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology is a full document of 167 pages. The report proper is brief. We learn from it that the Peabody fund has by judicious investment been increased by more than one-third, and that a fire-proof building will probably be secured without impairing the fund specially devoted to that purpose. From eight to ten thousand specimens have been added to the Museum during the past year. They include fourteen crania, whose measurements are very carefully given by the assistant curator; a large collection of shell-heap stone implements liberally made over to the Museum by the Peabody Academy of Science; Peruvian pottery from Mr. Alexander Agassiz, etc., etc. "It is worthy of note," says the curator, "when taken in connection with the discoveries of Schliemann at Hisarlik, that the collection of jars from Peru contains several with the representation of the owl's face, which is also represented on specimens of Missouri pottery." Special researches for the Museum have been conducted among mounds in Southern Utah and in Ohio and Virginia, and among the gravel-beds of the Delaware at Trenton. What gives a permanent value to this volume is the papers which follow the report. The first (which is shockingly printed, by the way) is Dr. C. C. Abbott's report on the discovery of supposed paleolithic implements from the glacial drift near Trenton. The discussion is a very candid one, and tends strongly to the conclusion that the implements in question "were fashioned by man during the glacial period, and were deposited with the associated gravels as we now find them." Professor E. B. Andrews's report on his examination of Ohio mounds abounds in interesting details as to their construction and uses and contents. They were mostly burial mounds, raised by heaped basketsful of dirt, and showing the practice of cremation (not always *in situ*) among the builders. The copper implements and ornaments found were of a rather striking character. Mr. Lucien Carr's report of the exploration of a Lee County (Va.) mound—the same which by caving unhappily caused the death of Professor Lucius H. Cheney—is a model of its kind. The mound is shown by its contents, in comparison with the narratives of early travellers, to have been used for residence through a long series of years, and at the last, or more than a century ago, to have been surmounted by a council-house—a wooden rotunda. "In this particular instance, it is not necessary to look beyond the historic epoch, or the Cherokee Indians, in order to find a mound-builder." Mr. Adolph F. Bandelier's "Art of War and Mode of Warfare of the Ancient Mexicans" is a lucid and entertaining dissertation, based on an extraordinary knowledge of the Spanish and other authorities, but absolutely free from the illusions which their terminology has imposed upon posterity as well as upon their contemporaries.

—More information in regard to Western mounds may be found in Vol. II., Part I. of the Proceedings of the Davenport (Iowa) Academy of Natural Sciences. Indeed, if the genuineness of the find which the Academy now prizes above all its relics of prehistoric man in America be conceded (and there seems no reason for doubting it), some questions are settled and others of equal importance raised by it in regard to the aborigines vaguely classed as mound-builders. A member of the Academy, Rev. J. Gass, returning to a mound on Cook's farm, near Davenport, which he had partly explored three years before, began excavations on January 10 of the present year, with the assistance of several persons, and discovered in a grave along with human bones and copper implements two tablets of bituminous shale, one inscribed on one side only, the

other on both. The three faces, heliotyped, accompany a description of them. The so-called calendar-stone is marked with four concentric circles about a central indentation; the outer band is regularly divided by hieroglyphics into twelve spaces, the inner band into four, the middle band being uninscribed. Holes are pierced in the corners as if for suspension. The other piece of shale has somewhat the appearance of having been once as large again. One side of it depicts clearly enough a sacrifice, or more probably a cremation: a fire giving off rings of smoke is surrounded by a circle of men clasping hands, while within are seeming corpses on the ground. Overhead on the right is what we should call the sun; on the left what might be the full moon; between, a number of dots which suggest stars, though an attempt is made in the 'Proceedings' to connect them with the Maya notation. Overall, arches a triple or even quadruple row of hieroglyphics, the two lowest between lines describing about a third of a circle. The reverse of the stone gives us a prehistoric hunting scene, on which deer, bison, and other animals besides man are more or less clearly depicted, with a willow-like tree. In addition to those named in the 'Proceedings' we think we discern a beaver. The figure of chief interest, however, which occurs twice, is elephantine, and, if the stone be aboriginal, would decide the question whether man and the mastodon were contemporaneous on this continent; which, for the rest, is altogether probable. Whether the hieroglyphics are writing, and what they mean, our archaeologists may in due time discuss.

—Recent proceedings at the East Tennessee University, briefly referred to by us last week, have been fully described by a correspondent of the *Springfield Republican*, from whose account we condense the following: The president of the university, the Rev. Dr. Humes, a Southern man, was a stout Unionist during the war, and his principles were shared by other members of the faculty, some of whom, moreover, were of Northern birth. Although at least one-half the instructors were of Southern birth and leanings, this was not enough to content some members of the Board of Trustees and other Knoxville "patriots." Two years ago a motion was made before the board that the faculty and teachers of the university should be appointed in future from that part of the country whence it derived its students. A very large majority of the trustees were Confederates; but more concerned about the success of the university than the political inclinations or birthplaces of its teachers, and appreciating the faithfulness of the faculty, some of whom have been connected with the university for many years, they had the good sense to vote against the motion. As the board is a close corporation, the members choosing their own successors, this disposition of the motion seemed final. At the last session of the Legislature, however, a bill was passed appointing twelve additional trustees, all from Knox County, and able therefore to attend the meeting of the board, and all pronounced "Southern" men. The purpose of the bill—to effect a change in the government of the university—was distinctly avowed at the time. At the first annual meeting of the new and "packed" board, last month, all the offices, from that of president to the lowest tutor, were declared vacant and a new election ordered. It had been hoped that General J. E. Johnston would accept the presidency, but, as he declined, Dr. Humes was re-elected by a majority of one vote. The intensity of the opposition to him is illustrated by the fact that he was afterwards subjected to the insults of a *charivari* party. All Northern-born professors or instructors of Union sentiments, although charged with no incapacity or unfaithfulness, failed of re-election, although in one case, that of the professor of ancient languages, a modification was made, a young tutor being chosen to the chair and the former professor retained as his assistant. Under the last faculty the institution is said to have been steadily advancing toward the position of a real college—something better than a high school. The new Board of Trustees, however, dissatisfied with the slowness of its advance, have converted it at once into a full-blown university, by organizing, on paper, three or four distinct colleges, "to afford opportunity for teaching what is known and for investigating the unknown in every branch of human knowledge"—this being, according to their declaration, the purpose of a true university. With only six professors and eighty college students (omitting preparatory scholars) it will be necessary to divide up pretty well in order to carry out this pretentious scheme. The university, without a doubt, has been seriously crippled by these unwise and outrageous proceedings, the disgrace of which is not lessened by the facts that the funds and endowments of the university were wholly derived from the United States Government, and that some of the discharged professors were away upon their vacation, having been assured that they would be

retained. The University of South Carolina has been reconstructed (or "regenerated," as the *Charleston News and Courier* would have it) in a similar manner. All the professors were informed "that the chairs were vacant and the college exercises indefinitely suspended." The expectation is to reopen in January or in October following, and to satisfy the colored people for their exclusion by giving them "an institution of high grade."

—A delightful antiquarian controversy, the parties to which, instead of authors or journalists, are solemn councils and burgomasters of Low Country towns, is now raging over the question of the birthplace of Rubens. Visitors to Cologne who, putting faith in a mural tablet, have recorded their emotions on viewing the house in which Marie de Medicis died and Peter Paul Rubens was born, may scratch that passage out of their journals. The enquiries of many scholars, beginning with Groen van Prinsterer, have settled that the birthplace of the great artist was Siegen, in Westphalia. Naturally, little Siegen desires to celebrate the 300th anniversary of the birth of her most illustrious son, and sends an invitation to the Council of Antwerp, city of his ancestry and his principal residence. But the great men of Antwerp take the invitation in evil part, and send back to Siegen a stiff and scornful refusal, scouting the claims of any town but Antwerp itself to have brought forth Rubens, appealing to their own local archæologist, Van Nol, who keeps a book-shop and has written a pamphlet to vindicate his country's rights. And they proudly announce that when they give *their* Rubens festival, in August, the world shall know whether they are right or not. But for all that there is not the ghost of a reasonable doubt that Rubens was born at Siegen.

—Two facts of importance to those interested in advanced education for women are reported from abroad. The University of St. Andrews will henceforth confer the degree of L.A. (Literate in Arts) on any woman passing the prescribed examinations. The degree is intended to be exactly equivalent, for women, to the degree of M.A. for men. The standard of attainment required will be the same for both degrees, the examinations the same, both in substance and in method, and conducted by the same professors and examiners. In the more important matter, however, of preparation for examinations it is, of course, impossible to admit women to the advantages of the common life of the colleges of which the university is made up. The improvements proposed at Geneva are of a more practical sort. The *École secondaire et supérieure des filles* of that "ville pédantesque" (as Voltaire delighted to call it) is already by many degrees superior to any like institution in French-speaking Europe. And there is neither legal nor social hindrance to a lady's profiting by all the lectures and other advantages of the university. It is now proposed, and the proposal will doubtless be carried into execution, to expand the course of instruction in the *École supérieure* by adding three or four years to the curriculum, in such a way as to lighten the labors of the earlier years, and to carry forward the pupil to a point relatively as far advanced as that at which the male students of the gymnasium graduate into the university. Among the studies to be thus added to the programme are Civil and Commercial Law, Psychology, Logic, History of Philosophy, History of Religion, of Art, of the French Language, German Literature (studied in the German language), Foreign Literatures, History of Politics and Civilization. Moreover, the bill now before the cantonal legislature provides that the graduates of this school entering into the service of the "department of public instruction" shall receive increased pay in consideration of more advanced studies. All these improvements, it is to be hoped, will not modify that practical character of the Geneva Girls' School which is its best distinction among such institutions. On the present programme the study of housekeeping and the household arts, so far as these can be taught in a school, is laid out as regularly as the study of grammar and mathematics. The course in needlework, for instance, begins with "plain sewing" in the freshman class, and is carried on year by year through successive stages until it culminates in "cutting and making a shirt." On the introduction of the bill a legislator of advanced views advocated the adoption of it on the ground that "in the struggle now agitating Europe between the principle of authority and the principle of free thought, the victory would belong to that party which should enlist the women under its banner; that it was the duty of women to live the same life and share the same aspirations with their husbands." But its popular support will probably be grounded on the simpler consideration that the people like a good school for their girls.

—Among the customs of Italy there is one that might, it seems to us, be transplanted to this country with success. We allude to making wedding-presents consisting of some rare or inedited literary work, printed in a dainty manner, in a small number of copies. The subject of the works generally has reference to the profession or taste of the parties, and in this way many valuable contributions to literature are made every year in Italy, which, unfortunately, not being for sale, are not accessible to the general public. We are indebted to Dr. Giuseppe Pitrè, the eminent Sicilian scholar, for a number of such valuable works printed in honor of his marriage to Signora Francesca Paola Vitrano, which took place at Palermo the 14th of last April. The size of the works is large 8vo, and some are printed on heavy drawing-paper. On the covers are the words: "Per le Nozze Pitirè-Vitrano, xiv. Aprile, MDCCCLXXXVII." There is sometimes a statement on the reverse of the title-page of the number printed; in one case 200 copies "fuori di commercio"; in another, 150; in another, only 25. There is, of course, a dedication to the happy couple, containing the editor's good wishes and a reference to the subject of the work, with bibliographical details, although these last are sometimes in a separate preface. The extent of the works varies from five to twenty-nine pages, and their subjects are all, with one exception, in the line of Dr. Pitirè's studies. He has, as our readers know, devoted himself to the collection of Sicilian popular poetry, tales, and traditions of all kinds. Among the presents which represent the first class are: "Dirae o Li Parti di la Corda, Canto di Erice," edited by Prof. U. A. Amico and Luigi Pedone Lauriel (Pitrè's generous and enterprising publisher), and "Venti Canti popolari Siciliani," presented by Prof. A. D'Ancona. Francesco Zambrini, the head of the Royal Commission for the Publication of Early Italian Literature, contributed an interesting "Canto storico popolare in ottava rima d'Anonimo Fiorentino del secolo xiv.," containing an account of the war of the Eight Saints (the revolt of Florence against the Pope in 1376). Vincenzo di Giovanni, well known for his work on Old-Sicilian, presented a "Treatise on the Four Cardinal Virtues," from a MS. of the XIVth century. In the department of folk-lore there were: "Novelline popolari Livornesi raccolte e annotate da Giovanni Papanti," containing five stories with copious notes, and "E Sette Mane-Mozze, in dialetto di Avellino (Principato Ulteriore)," by Vittorio Imbriani. In the department of traditions, customs, and proverbs were works by Signora Coronedi-Berti (author of an admirable dictionary of the Bolognese dialect recently published, and of a collection of popular tales in the same dialect), explaining a popular saying of Bologna, and an essay by Maspons y Labros on some popular marriage customs among the Catalans. These are not all, but will give the reader some idea of the extent and value of these contributions in an individual case. It seems to us, as we have said, that the custom might be introduced here. The early history of our country would furnish ample materials in the way of reprints of rare tracts or inedited letters, etc., while such special subjects as the late civil war, the anti-slavery struggle, etc., would afford an endless field for illustration.

—Japan seems, of all known countries, perhaps the most remarkable for the development of novel phases of astuteness, the Government furnishing the latest and most brilliant example. The hereditary pensions of the nobles having been capitalized and the terms of payment fixed, the question arose, How should the nobles best employ the large sums of which, from time to time, they should become possessed? Among other schemes, the formation of a Nobles' Bank was the one which found most favor; and a Nobles' Bank was founded accordingly, with directors, managers, secretaries, and officials, all appointed brand-new, and the whole under Government patronage. The little matter of capital remained to be adjusted; but the Government would provide that too. Did they not owe at the end of last year to the *Kuwazoku* (nobles) between seventeen and eighteen millions of dollars? There was a handsome capital to start a bank with—a capital, in the words of the bank's prospectus, "more than five million dollars in excess of that possessed by any other bank in the East." (The capital of the Oriental Bank Corporation is only about \$12,000,000.) But when it was proposed, or before—which does not much matter—to transfer the seventeen odd millions to the new bank's coffers, the Government said: "Of the entire amount we have present and pressing need for fifteen million dollars. In fact, we have already spent it in our little war against the insurrectionary Saigo and his friends in the south; so we will borrow that sum from you at five per cent. interest, without security. The two to three millions remaining, or what part of it we have not laid out in public works, you are welcome to. Take it and start your bank in peace." This is an absolute fact and no fancy sketch. Indeed, fancy would probably never imagine any scheme half so sublime, killing, as this does, two big birds with one stone—founding a national

bank with a large capital which has been already expended, and relieving the Government of a great strain. It is needless to enquire what the nobles think of the arrangement. We can only recommend them to have faith in their bank.

MORGAN'S "ANCIENT SOCIETY."*

I.

THE author of "Systems of Consanguinity and Affinity of the Human Family" has continued the researches which gave rise to that work, and now appears before the public with a new book, entitled "Ancient Society; or, Researches in the Lines of Human Progress from Savagery through Barbarism into Civilization." The contents fully bear out this title, and, while it is next to impossible to review adequately a production of this kind and of such scientific importance, a simple analysis will, we trust, amply show the more than ordinary merits of this "labor of love" of our most distinguished ethnologist. Before, however, we attempt this, we must call the reader's attention to the first paragraph of the first chapter of the first part, which is as follows:

"The latest investigations respecting the early condition of the human race are tending to the conclusion that mankind commenced their career at the bottom of the scale, and worked their way up from savagery to civilization through the slow accumulation of experimental knowledge."

In accordance with this view of evolution, Mr. Morgan has very logically treated the history of mankind as a "growth," and his book is divided into four parts, headed respectively: I. Growth of Intelligence through Inventions and Discoveries. II. Growth of the Idea of Government. III. Growth of the Idea of Family. IV. Growth of the Idea of Property.

The first part is devoted mainly to the establishment of what Mr. Morgan calls "ethnic periods," of which he recognizes three: savagery, barbarism, and civilization. The first two of these are again subdivided into three sub-periods each—a lower, a middle, and an upper status. Although this division is in itself a great improvement upon Herder's "ages of mankind," as well as upon the ages of stone, bronze, and iron of recent archaeology, Mr. Morgan is far from putting it forth as absolute. "It is difficult," says he (p. 9), "if not impossible, to find such tests of progress to mark the commencement of these several periods as will be found absolute in their application and without exceptions upon all the continents. Neither is it necessary, for the purpose in hand, that exceptions should not exist." This modest reserve on his part precludes us from taking any exception to the statement immediately preceding the one just quoted: "It is probable that the successive arts of subsistence which arose at long intervals will ultimately, from the great influence they must have exercised upon the condition of mankind, afford the most satisfactory basis for these divisions." We cordially endorse his further remark: "Even though accepted as provisional, these periods will be found convenient and useful." Not as established facts, but as incitements to future research, Mr. Morgan's "ethnic periods" are of lasting scientific value. Neither shall we dwell too strongly on the assertion made at the outset of the second chapter ("Arts of Subsistence"): "Upon their skill in this direction the whole question of human supremacy on the earth depended." It is in perfect harmony with the author's views, and the correctness of them is not a fit subject for discussion here.

The second part, "Growth of the Idea of Government," however, deserves full attention. But here we must confess that Mr. Morgan furnishes us with a division entirely different, independent of all progress in the arts of subsistence, and which appears to us more satisfactory than the one just alluded to. It is the condition of human society. He acknowledges three classes succeeding each other, viz., society based upon difference of sex; society based upon kin; political society, based upon territory and property. These distinctions are not altogether parallel with the three ethnic periods. Still, we would suggest that they are of a higher order, and, therefore, better adapted to a classification of the "ratio of human progress." For while the rulership of the earth, as pictured in the development of the arts of subsistence, is without doubt the main exterior basis, man's control of himself is certainly the higher and nobler feature. And what else is the "growth of the idea of government" than the struggle of mankind towards that self-control which, for the individual as well as for the whole race, alone insures full and happy exercise of all faculties? It has, indeed, been a "labor of love" on the part of Mr. Morgan to gather the numberless data requisite for the re-

sults embodied in this second part of his book alone. We are justified in stating that they include a period of time of nearly twenty-five years. By scanning the earth's surface, even to the remotest isles, our author has succeeded in preserving for us the most important features of life among races that are fast vanishing. These features he has judiciously connected with the oldest records—mythical, traditional, and historical—of humanity, and thus spun a thread which, at a given point, is sure to pass through any branch or tribe. It is not so much an historical as an ethnological guide, which no one can neglect who intends to devote some attention to human antiquity, as well as to the study of such living peoples as are yet without the pale of modern civilization.

Of a state of society based upon the differences of sex we cannot form an adequate conception, so far as the archaic form is concerned, since nowhere upon earth is this peculiar form any longer to be found. But a mixture composed of two divisions, one based upon sex (dying out), and the other based upon kin (in process of development), prevails among many of the remnants of Australia's aborigines, who physically are perhaps at the bottom of the scale of human development. This at least appears certain, that such a condition was devoid of any organization. Individualism prevailed exclusively. Organization only made its appearance when mankind, rising above mere sexual divergences, began to group itself by kin. For these groups, distinguished sometimes under the names of clan, lineage, sept, etc., etc.—even tribe—Mr. Morgan has adopted the Latin name of "gens," and society based upon kin (as we have termed it before) is called by him "gentile society." (Both terms will be exclusively used by us hereafter.) Under it "the government dealt with persons through their relations to a gens or tribe." The gens "is a body of consanguineal descended from the same common ancestor, distinguished by a gentile name, and bound together by affinities of blood. It includes a moiety only of such descendants." In the earliest times this ancestor was supposed to be a female, therefore descent was in the female line; towards the later periods descent changed to the male line, as it now remains, since the present form of society, founded upon territory and property, and termed by Mr. Morgan "political society," has taken the place of gentilism. The last trace of the latter is found remaining in the family name. Ancient society, therefore, as far as we can trace it, has the unit of organization in the gens.

How the change occurred, from the disorganized state in which mankind knew only sexual difference, to gentile organization, Mr. Morgan attempts to explain in the third part of his book. In whatever manner the gens may have sprung up, its first apparition was an all-important fact, since its primitive form already contained the elements of government. To illustrate the gens in all its forms and transitions, as it appeared among as many branches of mankind as could be studied, to develop the various phases of society which it called forth, the organizations into which it disaggregated and to which it aggregated, until its ultimate downfall, as no longer corresponding to the wants of a stronger, richer, and more numerous community—this is Mr. Morgan's particular aim. Very naturally, he begins with the aborigines of this continent, who, according to him, have nowhere reached beyond the circle of gentile institutions. The Iroquois, whom nobody ever knew so well or studied so closely as Mr. Morgan, furnish him with the type of Indian institutions. Some tribes progressed beyond them, while others lagged behind, but all over the country, north and south, he establishes the same principles of society for the study of which the Six Nations furnished him with such ample and trustworthy materials.

The gens being the original unit, its functions and attributes should first be considered. Of these the Iroquois gentiles (thirty-eight in number) recognize ten, as follows: 1. The right of electing its sachem and chiefs. 2. The right of deposing its sachem and chiefs. 3. The obligation not to marry in the gens. 4. Mutual rights of inheritance to the property of deceased members. 5. Reciprocal obligations of help, defense, and redress of injuries. 6. The right of bestowing names upon its members. 7. The right of adopting strangers into the gens. 8. Common religious rites. 9. A common burial-place. 10. A council of the gens. These attributes fully characterize the nature of the gens. It is a democratic institution—the earliest attempt not only at government in general, but more especially at self-government proper. From this Mr. Morgan concludes that gentile society was essentially democratic, monarchy and despotism being products of a much later period. "As the unit, so the compound."

It results from the original or archaic form of the gens that at its inception at least two gentes must have been formed. This plurality either created a duality and hostility, or, rather, produced the first compound of

* "Ancient Society; or, Researches in the Lines of Human Progress from Savagery through Barbarism into Civilization. By Lewis H. Morgan." New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877.

the gens, namely: the tribe. Here again our author draws largely upon his favorite source, the Iroquois, and says: "It remains to present the functions and attributes of an Indian tribe, which may be discussed under the following propositions": 1. The possession of a territory and a name. 2. The exclusive possession of a dialect. 3. The right to invest sachems and chiefs elected by the gentes. 4. The right to depose these sachems and chiefs. 5. The possession of a religious faith and worship. 6. A supreme government consisting of a council of chiefs. 7. A head-chief of the tribe in some instances. The parallelism between the functions of the tribe and those of the gentes of which it is composed appears striking; while, on the other hand, the fact of a tribe holding (however transiently) possession of a territory, already places in the gentes the first indication of a future state and nation.

Within the tribe itself another subdivision sometimes appears—namely, that of a brotherhood of gentes, uniting together for certain purposes of religious worship and of a more social nature. Such a brotherhood, which sometimes divides a tribe into more than two sections (in the case of the Mohegans into three), Mr. Morgan designates by its Greek term, a phratry. He shows conclusively that it is not the product of a spontaneous union of the gentes, but rather the remainder of segmentation taking place in an original gens; the phratry being the only vestige left of its former existence. It does not belong to the organic series proper of gentile society, but the study of its formation as presented in this work is of the highest value for the understanding of the diffusion of mankind over the American continent and of the formation of the numerous aboriginal languages. We earnestly commend to the student's careful attention Mr. Morgan's beautiful exposé of the manner in which, from a given centre of subsistence (the valley of the Columbia, for instance), the entire continent might have become peopled in course of time: "When increased numbers pressed upon the means of subsistence, the surplus removed to a new seat, where they established themselves with facility, because the government was perfect in every gens, and in any number of gentes united in a band. . . . Dialectical variation finally would spring up, and thus complete their growth into tribes."

Ocean to Ocean. By Rev. Geo. M. Grant. (New York: R. Worthington. 1877.)—The indignant scorn with which Canadians commonly repel the insinuation that the fate of British America is "to fall like a ripe pear into the lap of the Republic" is well known; and this idea, as well as "the magnificent dreams of a future when this Colony shall be the Greater Britain," has inspired the book before us, which describes, in the form of a diary, a journey from Halifax to Victoria "wholly through British possessions," made in 1872 by the writer as Secretary to Mr. Sandford Fleming, Chief Engineer of the Canadian Pacific Railway. The route—across Nova Scotia and New Brunswick to the St. Lawrence, thence through the great lakes to Fort William, over the rivers, portages, lakes, and swamps to Fort Garry, up the Assiniboine and Saskatchewan rivers to the Rocky Mountains, and down Fraser's River to the Pacific—presents as many varieties of scenery, of semi-savage races and strange modes of locomotion, as can well be compressed into a three months' journey of nearly five thousand miles. Mr. Grant describes the ordinary incidents of the daily life of such travel with unusual fidelity, which is not at all marred by the occasional bursts of enthusiasm at some particularly impressive mass of mountain scenery, and artistic descriptions of a fine sunset or of a train of Red River carts and shaggy ponies overtaken by a prairie hail-storm. His ideas about Indians (in Canada) are excellent, and he pleads for simple justice for them without sentimental philanthropy, and gives a succinct and clear account of the rule of the Hudson's Bay Company, "the last of the great English monopolies." His diary, filled with these matters, is supplemented with many reflections upon the future of the Dominion, and many a slur upon its "wealthy neighbor," of which he has an ill-concealed envy and jealousy that crops out in every chapter and often in most comical shape. He looks at the United States, and asks how it has come about that they have grown from a few Atlantic provinces to "a mighty nation stretching its arms across a continent?" And he answers his question by referring to the enterprise (often unscrupulous, in his opinion) which has drawn millions of emigrants from every part of the world, built railroads in advance of settlement, and provided a system of transportation which takes charge of the emigrant at Castle Garden and lands him in a fertile prairie where there is "perhaps a comfortable log shanty ready for him." Following out his idea, he contends that the United States have now exhausted all their valuable land, but that "there's millions of it" in Manitoba and

the Saskatchewan valley, to which he wants emigration directed; and in addition:

"Let there be a line of communication from the Pacific to the St. Lawrence through a succession of loyal provinces bound up with the empire by ever-multiplying and tightening links, and the future of the fatherland and of the great empire of which she will then be only the chief part is secured."

We venture to suggest some difficulties in the way of settlement besides those of summer frosts and lack of wood and fresh water, which our author endeavors laboriously to explain away: we refer to the climate, which, although not as severe as imagined, is still sufficiently arctic to limit emigration to the Northern Scots, Scandinavians, or Russians, and the capacities of its soil, fertile as it unquestionably is, to a few cereals and the more hardy vegetables; and these, with limited stock-raising and an abundance of tertiary coal near the mountains, comprise the resources of the "boundless northwest" of Canada. Mr. Grant should study more carefully the relations of Iowa, Illinois, Missouri, and Nebraska to great manufacturing centres, mineral districts, and southern products, before he enlarges too much on the air-castles of his future empire. However, if this book does not justify the warning (here quoted) of Mr. Seward, "that vigorous, perennial, ever-growing Canada would be a Russia behind the United States," it at least gives much trustworthy information about a comparatively unknown region. We can easily afford to forgive the numerous flings at "the neighboring Republic," and, with the aid of a map (which should be a *sine qua non* in such a book), can heartily enjoy the freedom and exhilaration of its journeys through the "great lone land."

Chambers's Cyclopædia of English Literature. Third edition. Revised by Robert Carruthers, LL.D. In two volumes. (New York: R. Worthington; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—The most striking difference between the present and the earlier editions of this well-known work is in the accession of scientific writers. Not only is their number significant, but they gain admission to the ranks of literary men with their colors flying, and in virtue of what they have written about science pure and simple. The fact is that since 1844, the date of the first appearance of the Cyclopædia, the term "literature" has been stretched perforce until it embraces what would then have been regarded as almost wholly unliterary. If we turn in the first volume to the article on Bacon, we find quoted a number of passages relating to Friendship, Studies, Discourse, Beauty, Prosperity and Adversity, Government, Libraries, and the like; if we turn to Newton, we are treated to his views on the Prophetic Language and a statement of his religious belief. Their scientific greatness is entirely unrecognized in these extracts. On the other hand, in the newer portion, Darwin, Huxley, and Tyndall are illustrated by what we may call "natural selection"—that is, by characteristic specimens of their scientific thought and doctrine. This difference between 1844 and 1876 is symptomatic of a great revolution in the popular reading, which is only fully appreciated when we compare the relative proportion of scientific say to theological publications at the two epochs. Nor ought it to be overlooked that it is the encroachments of science upon the ground of theology which have done most to give popularity to the newest branch of literature, and to make the 'Descent of Man' (even in the editorial mind beyond the Tweed) as good a title to a place in the Cyclopædia as Paley's 'Evidences' or Butler's 'Analogy.'

Another thing which strikes an American who scans these volumes curiously to see how his countrymen fare, is the scanty literary growth of the last twenty years. Yet the publishers expressly say in their preface that "one distinguishing feature of this period [since 1858, the date of the second edition] has been the advance in American literature. The New World has nobly vindicated its claim to be associated with the Old in the arts which dignify and adorn social life." If, however, we go over in our minds the list of writers whom Americans delight to honor as their countrymen, and single out those who have emerged and made a reputation since 1858, shall we find many or any who can compare with the lights of the previous period—but for whose continued burning, as we may say, the period just closed would almost have been in outer darkness? Bryant, Emerson, Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, Lowell, Story, Motley were all famous before 1858, and some of them had reached the climax of productivity. The same is true of Bayard Taylor; and neither Prof. W. D. Whitney nor J. W. Draper can, relatively to the date in question, be called a *novus homo*. But if these names be excluded, the wonderful "advance in American literature" predicated by the publishers resolves itself, on the editorial showing, into—Bret Harte and Mark Twain!

Absolutely, these two writers constitute in the eyes of Dr. Carruthers the intellectual glory of the past twenty years. This is certainly a great injustice to Artemus Ward, who has been as much pirated in England as either of his successors. A humorist who outranks them all in any scale in which a horse-laugh would be out of place, Mr. Howells, is not to be found in the *Cyclopedia*; a novelist like Mr. Henry James, jr., is equally undetectable; a poet like Mr. Aldrich has failed to attract the editor's attention. So popular a writer as Miss Alcott, whose works sell by the thousand in England, derives no advantage from this transatlantic approval.

So much for the new school. Among the older there are some serious omissions. We look in vain for Charles Sprague, for Richard H. Dana, jr., for John G. Palfrey, for Francis Parkman, for Charles G. Leland, for Edmund Quincy. Channing we have, but not Theodore Parker; Webster, but neither Everett, Sumner, nor Phillips. Gilmore Simms is spoken of as still living. But the editor is impartial in his omissions. He takes in neither Walter Bagehot nor Prof. Cairnes. To Mr. Freeman he allots no more space for extracts than to Mark Twain.

The Antelope and Deer of America. By John Dean Caton. Illustrated. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1877. 8vo, pp. i-xvi, 17-426.)—If we take this treatise for what it is, and do not mistake it for what it does not pretend to be, we are at a loss for criticism that shall not seem hypercritical, and do not feel that the lightest word of unfavorable comment is required. It is a good deal to call a book matchless, but our experience in popular zoological publications does not show us another treatise, if we except Mr. Lewis H. Morgan's admirable monograph on the beaver, that so thoroughly satisfies the expectations which the author's announced intentions justify, or one which so thoroughly covers the ground he elects to go over. It in no way detracts from the rare merit of the work that the scope does not include various technical matters which underlie the general subject, and which would be indispensable in a treatise professedly and formally devoted to what is somewhat indvidiously known as "science." Nature has not only put bones and teeth into animals for the convenience of taxonomists and paper-philosophers, but she has clothed them with flesh and warmed them into life with blood. "Science is not all comprised within lists of names and categories of affinities; and if to be an amateur is to appreciate this to the fullest, in all its bearings, then we wish that we had, for the benefit of the truest and highest purposes which science can subserve, more students of nature who, like Judge Caton, are "only amateurs."

Probably no person living has had better opportunities for studying the deer and antelope of America than the author of this book has enjoyed, and his execution of the work proves that he has made the most of them, improving his extraordinary facilities with ripe powers of observation, abundant reflection, great judgment and discernment, and a genuine love of his subject. We were prepared for a work of unusual merit and value by the numerous minor papers which the author has previously published in various periodicals, and are not surprised to find here the sum of long years of patient, faithful, and earnest enquiry. It does not seem to us reasonably possible that more minute and accurate description of all that can be learned of these animals

as studied alive could be given, or given in a more interesting manner. We are ourselves presumed to be tolerably familiar with the subject, but we can truthfully say that we have learned more from Judge Caton than from all the rest of our book-experience. He may almost be said to have placed the subject in an entirely new light—in the light most like nature's own, and most favorable for its full appreciation. It would be trite to say that the work is a mine of wealth, but such is the fact; and it is as such that we confidently recommend it to all who are interested in the subject, as well as to any who would like to be interested in something against their will. For it is a most persuasive and seductive book, with all the "hypocrisy of love" to lure a lukewarm or a faint-hearted reader. The author infuses his agreeable personality through every page, and is no less delightful as a companion than he is instructive as a teacher. It is not to our present purpose to go into any analysis of the treatise, but simply to indicate its character.

Irrigation for the Farm, Garden, and Orchard. By Henry Stewart. (New York: Orange Judd Company. 12mo, pp. 264.)—The idea of the irrigation of agricultural lands has hitherto floated in a mythical sort of way in the American mind. We have always known more or less about the irrigation works of Lombardy, and less definitely of those of Spain, Japan and China, Egypt, and much of the rest of the world. We have some idea, too, of the irrigation works of the early Spanish settlers in Mexico and California, traces of whose aqueduct gutters are still to be found. Some important modern works of this character have been established in our own time in Colorado, California, and elsewhere, but on the whole our knowledge concerning the art may be said to be limited to a conviction of its importance. Practically, every one who thinks about the subject at all is satisfied that irrigation must produce the most profitable results, but almost no one knows the manner in which the work should be done. With this knowledge of the importance of irrigation so long existing, it seems odd that we should now have only our first American book on the subject—and a very successful book it is. It is not faultless—as what first book on a practical subject ever is?—but it is an extremely clever and skilful presentation of the details of irrigation work, which strikes us as being really more comprehensive and clever than any single English or French work of its size on the same subject, and its reading should be the first step of all who intend to carry irrigation into practice.

*. Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Price.
Carpenter (Dr. W. B.), Mesmerism, Spiritualism, etc.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Cherbuliez (V.), Samuel Brohl and Company.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Clifford (Josephine), Overland Tales	(Claxton, Remsen & Haff-linger)
Gill (W. F.), Life of Edgar Allan Poe	(William F. Gill & Co.) 81 75
Grant (Sir A.), Aristotle	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 00
Ingleby (C. M.), Shakespeare: The Man and the Book	(Trübner & Co.)
Leo (Dr.), The Preservation of Beauty	(George de Colange & Co.)
Marenholz-Büllow (B. v.), Reminiscences of Friedrich Froebel	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
McCormick (S. J.), Peters's General History of Connecticut	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Raub (A. N.), Complete Arithmetic	(Porter & Coates)
Renan (E.), Les Evangiles, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Ten Brink (B.), Geschichte der englischen Literatur, Vol. I.	(B. Westermann & Co.)
That Husband of Mine	(Lee & Shepard) 1 00
Williamson (J.), History of Belfast, Maine	(Loring, Short & Harmon) 6 00

Bain's Course in Grammar

A BRIEF LOGICAL GRAMMAR. 45 cts.

KEY TO THE ABOVE. 45 cts.

A HIGHER GRAMMAR. 80 cts.

GRAMMAR AS BEARING UPON COMPOSITION. \$1.40.

Full Descriptive Catalogue sent upon application.

HENRY HOLT & CO., NEW YORK.

DAVIS, BARDEEN & CO.,

Syracuse, N. Y., publish "The Regents' Questions," Beebe's "First Steps with Figures," Roe's "A Work in Number," De Graff's "School-Room Guide," House's "Studies in Articulation," Frohisher's "Good Selections for Reading," Bardeen's "Common-School Law," Johanner's "School-Houses," Tillinghast's "Dilemma of School Songs," De Graff's "Institute Song Budget," several "School Records," etc., etc.

Send two stamps for catalogue and specimen copy of the *School Bulletin*.

F. W. CHRISTERN,

77 UNIVERSITY PLACE, NEW YORK.

Renan. *Evangiles*. [Hist. de Christianisme. Vol. V.] 8vo, \$3.00
 Legouve. *Theatre de Campagne*. 8-rie I. and II. 1 40
 Les Soirees Parisiennes de 1876. 12mo, illus. 1 40

Wants.

A GRADUATE OF HARVARD, who has had some experience as a teacher, wishes a place in a good school or as private tutor. Best references given. R. T. C., Box 1700, Philadelphia.

A MALE TEACHER of several years' experience, graduate of a teachers' seminary in Germany and of a college in the United States, desires a new position. Address P. O. Box 171, Hillsborough, Vernon Co., Wis.

AN ENGLISH LADY, of superior culture, wishes to teach in a family of good position. Subjects: English in all branches, Latin, French, Hanoverian German, Painting in Water-Colors, Music (Organ and Piano). Unexceptionable references. Locality immaterial. Address (stating terms) to Miss CHATEAU, Keyville P. O., Charlotte Co., Va.

POSITION WANTED, as instructor in mathematics, by a Cornell graduate. Took first prize in Inter-collegiate contest, Jan., '75. Best of references. Address E. H. PALMER, Lock-Box 163, Rochester, N. Y.

TO COLLEGES.—The advertiser, a resident of California, possessing a knowledge of more than thirty of the languages (ancient and modern) of Europe and the Orient, is desirous of obtaining a professorship of one or more of the same. Communications addressed to A. H. C., Post-Office Box 2450, New York City, will be promptly forwarded and duly received.

TO LAWYERS.—Wanted, by a young member of N. Y. City Bar of nine years' standing, a position as junior partner, chief clerk, or otherwise, in a law office. He believes himself to be energetic and competent; has practised in all the courts; is a member of N. Y. Law Institute and from Harvard Law School; has office furniture and books; is 30 years old; is desirous of locating permanently with family away from N. Y. City because of climate. Address LAWYER, care C. E. Huntington, 68 Fulton Street, N. Y. City.

SITUATIONS WANTED by two Virginia Ladies to teach in private families English, French, Music, or as companion. Apply to M. McKENNE & SON, University of Virginia. References exchanged.

WANTED—A situation as teacher, by a young man, a graduate of Trinity College, who has had experience, and can give unexceptionable references. Address C., P. O. Box 352, Hartford, Conn.

WANTED—Tutor in a private family. A recent graduate of Harvard College desired. Address PEENSKILL, N. Y., P. O. Box 275.

